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ABSTRACT

To provide research about women's work values and how these values may be related to specific demographic variables, questionnaires were mailed to 4,003 women in New York State. The six work values under investigation were identifiable psychological needs: (1) dominance-recognition, (2) mastery-achievement, (3) economic, (4) independence, (5) social, and (6) interesting activity. The demographic variables chosen to be linked with the work values were marital state, age, educational attainment, employment status, career pattern, socioeconomic class, and field of work. Analysis of 1,871 returns revealed that the values which women seek from work are linked to specific demographic variables. The only value which consistently crossed all demographic variables and is, therefore, considered the central work value for women was the mastery-achievement value. The two least important work values were dominance-recognition and economic. The results of this study have many implications for the guidance and counseling profession, such as: (1) the work values of men and women differ, (2) women need to derive a sense of accomplishment and satisfaction from their work, and (3) women seek work to fulfill their social needs. A sample of the questionnaire is appended. (Author/SB)

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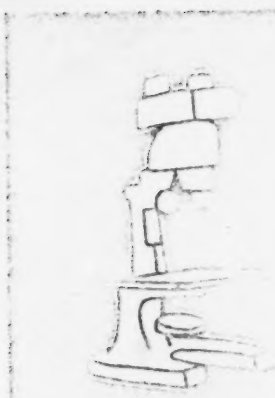

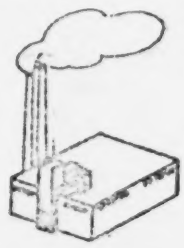

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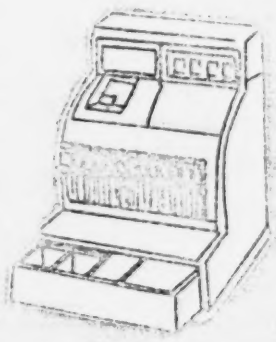

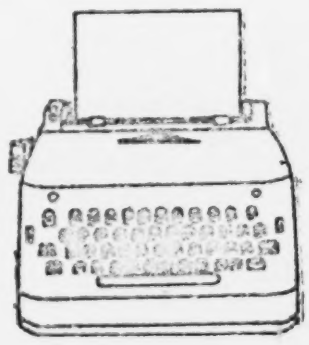

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# WOMEN IN THE WORLD OF WORK

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The University of the State of New York
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PREFACE

This study was presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of the State University of New York at Albany as a dissertation topic by Helen Bickel Wolfe. The original document is entitled, An Analysis of the Work Values of Women: Implications for Counseling, April 1968. For the purpose of conciseness many of the statistical tables have been eliminated from this document. For greater amplification, the reader may consult the source document, which is available from University Microfilms, Ann Arbor, Michigan, and the State University of New York Library at Albany.

The writer wishes to express her sincere appreciation to the New York State Education Department, which financed the study, and the many members of the staff who contributed their time and skills. Special recognition is due: Carl E. Wedekind, Director, Division of Research, Alan G. Robertson, Director, Division of Evaluation, William N. Smith, Director, Office of Planning in Higher Education, Lee R. Wolfe, Chief, Bureau of Statistical Services, and Mrs. Edward W. Price, Stenographer.

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# WOMEN IN THE WORLD OF WORK

The image of woman as worker and potential worker has been changing and is currently in a state of flux, with its future development still uncertain. Therefore there is a general resurgence of interest and concern about women in the world of work. Changes in her family role, and chores as wife and mother have given her more time and energy to seek employment: technological improvements have eased the drudgery of day-to-day housework, smaller families, a lessening of the primary group function and status of the family have made possible a greater emphasis on further education. Favorable legislation regarding discriminatory practices has given her additional opportunity. The result has been increased employment of women outside of the home.

This concern has stimulated a great deal of literature about women in recent years. Very little research, however, has been done to examine the reasons why women work and the satisfactions they seek from work. This particular study was designed to learn something about women's work values and to relate these to the specific demographic variables of age, marital status, education, socioeconomic class, career pattern, field of work, and current employment status. The findings of this study have a number of implications for educators and counselors.

## I. THE PROBLEM

### Women's Education

Educators are accepting an increasingly important role in the social and economic systems of the country. As a result, society is making increasing demands upon the schools to provide the necessary skilled manpower for the future. For the adolescent and late adolescent, the school is a

separate social system which is an important contributor in defining and reinforcing the cultural norms and mores of society. Coleman (1965) has stated that, "the school is an institution designed by the adult society to transmit values and skills to children." The effectiveness of this transmission has been questioned for the population as a whole and for girls in particular. Indeed, some of education's most vocal critics have questioned this basic objective as well as the modus operandi of educational institutions.

John C. Flanagan (1964), Director of Project Talent, concluded that, "Far from being excellent, the education given to our nation's girls is not even adequate to prepare them for effectiveness in appropriate occupations, as responsible citizens, or as parents." The results of Flanagan's study indicate that "girls on entering high school do about as well as, or slightly better than, boys on such tests as arithmetic reasoning, abstract reasoning, reading comprehension and creativity. However, when these girls were retested about three years later in the twelfth grade, the boys excelled on all of these tests except the reading comprehension test . . . the boys' gains on these tests were on the average about 20 percent higher than the girls'."

In many instances, the educational establishment and educators have been remiss in accepting and meeting the challenges and responsibilities confronting them in educating the American woman. For the most part, they have continued to reinforce the values of the adolescent culture about which Coleman (1965) says "the emphasis on popularity with boys has powerful consequences for these girls' attitudes toward life and themselves." Reinforcement of these values and of the stereotype of women's roles contributed little towards women's future growth. Perpetuation of a concept

which limits women to certain traditional feminine interests and occupations has resulted in the transmission of values and skills which prevent them from expanding their horizons in today's society.

Instead of attempting to channel women's efforts in many new areas and reward their achievements, the educational institution helps to increase the inner conflicts of many girls and women by giving them a greater vision and then denying their participation in it. Society's expectations of a woman's educational attainment are generally lower than her potential. This ultimately results in the stifling of creativity and intellectual pursuits. Statistics from the President's Commission Report on the Status of Women (1963) reveal that among today's female population less than half of all women 25 years of age and over are high school graduates. In 1960, there were almost 4 million adult women with less than 5 years of schooling. During the same year 11.5 million women were high school dropouts.

Although "girls have consistently outnumbered boys among high school graduates, the difference in the number of girl and boy graduates has narrowed in the last few decades. High school graduating classes recently have been composed almost equally of girls and boys--51 and 49 percent, respectively in 1965." (Trends in the Educational Attainment of Women, 1965) As one begins to ascend the educational ladder, the degree of disparity in educational attainment emerges. A higher proportion of male high school graduates enter college and ultimately graduate. Prior to World War II, 41 percent of the bachelor's and professional degrees were awarded to women, but by 1964, this percentage had decreased to 38 percent. During the same time span, the percentage of women obtaining masters degrees declined from 38 percent to 32 percent. The percentage of women obtaining

doctoral degrees decreased from 13 percent to 11 percent. (Trends in the Educational Attainment of Women, 1965)

A sex-directed education has continued to foster an emphasis on sex-role development for women. Early education in the United States relegated women to a second-class citizenship and formal training was frequently haphazard or nonexistent. Some of the ardent feminists who were vitally concerned with women's rights pioneered in establishing and promoting better educational opportunities for girls. However, the higher education programs have continued to emphasize the sex-directed curricula for women and have neglected the curricula offerings which promote creativity and critical thinking. As a result, curricula offerings for girls tend to be dichotomized into two forms, one which is very narrow, highly specialized and restrictive, and the other broad, liberal, and unfocused. The former restrictive curriculum is based upon the philosophy that the function of education is to prepare a woman to enter one of the highly traditional and acceptable professions: nursing, teaching, and social work. The broad curriculum fails to prepare women to enter the world of work and the likelihood of their continuing their graduate education is considerably slimmer than that of their male counterparts.

Virginia Sender (Counseling Girls for New Perspectives, 1966) has described some of the obstacles existing in the educational system which keep American women from realizing their potential.

> The expressed career aspirations of girls are not taken seriously. Girls are guided into course choices that prevent them from making a later change to a field more appropriate and fulfilling for them. Mathematics and science are too often missing from their curricula.

> Career choices are being made at the same time that sex-role identity is being established. Hence, a reluctance arises to undertake a career that threatens the feminine image.
>
> Women's higher education has, in the past, been modeled in content and schedule after men's education, and hence is not appropriate to the different life schedules of women. Only recently have we begun to recognize the need for a different temporal pattern to suit the different demands of women's lives.

Educators have vital roles to play in the socialization process for women and girls. Faculty members have the opportunity to function as primary reference group members and as such can wield considerable influence. However, it is not unusual to find that the attitudes of teachers are neither sympathetic nor encouraging to girls who aspire to intellectual pursuits.

Guidance and Counseling for Women

Research suggests that most vocational counseling and guidance for girls and women is relatively ineffective. One reason for this is that many counselors fail to alter the type of vocational planning which they give to boys when they counsel girls. Most of the research basic to the accepted theories of vocational development has been undertaken with men. The results of these research studies have then been applied indiscriminately to women. The results of these career pattern studies are not applicable to women because sex differences initially were excluded. Failure to take account of this serious limitation leads to the erroneous application of results of those studies. Very few investigations have been undertaken to trace the career development and work value orientations of women. In fact, the very paucity of such studies is significant in reflecting society's attitude toward women.

Current vocational research studies show an increasing tendency to plan studies which are based upon personality theories, e.g., parent-child-relationships (Breytespraak, 1964) and dominant versus submissive traits (Hoyt and Kennedy, 1958). In these related studies the investigators have attempted to assess the personality traits of career-oriented women vs. homemaking-oriented women in an endeavor to predict the future role of an individual woman. The results from the majority of these studies have been inconclusive and insignificant, since the attempt to dichotomize the career development pattern of women into the either/or concept fails to recognize the multiple and interchangeable roles of women.

Frequently counselors reinforce this dichotomy as they interact with their girl counselees and fail to communicate an awareness of the variety of work patterns which exist. Berry, et al. (1966) stress the futility of the attempt to hold on to this ghost of the past:

> At one time, planning was a simple thing for a girl; it was a lifetime of employed work or a lifetime of marriage. The either/or concept is dead. Timing is the modern girl's planning problem. Decisions have to be made concerning; marrying early and having her children early, then continuing her education and/or employment when the children are in school; delaying her marriage until an educational program has been completed in order to have an 'insurance policy' for later on; aiming toward a career goal with no particular concern about marriage plans; planning to combine career and marriage.

Many individuals and groups have begun to raise questions regarding the relevance of the conventional manner in which counselors undertake the educational and vocational planning process with girls and women. A more accurate perception of what work really means to women and the values and satisfactions they seek from work can assist counselors. Counselors require evidence concerning the work orientations and career development

patterns of women. Once the counselor has a concrete basis from which he can operate, he will find that many of the inadequacies which exist in education for girls can be remedied through a process of reappraisal and innovation. Research about the career development, work patterns, and work values of women is meager. At the same time, current literature is filled with challenges hurled at educators and counselors to provide meaningful vocational and educational guidance for women and girls.

Neuman (1963) reflects this in her statement:

> In view of the changing concepts of women's lives and roles, perhaps the first thing the counselor working with women should recognize is that all women have many educational and vocational and personal choices to make, including the decision not to make a choice...counselors must be fully cognizant of the special problems women face and share with them this awareness.

Lewis (1965) succinctly expressed the major emphases in the literature, dividing them into three categories,

> (a) the role of wife and mother does not fully meet the intellectual and emotional needs of many women; (b) the life patterns of most women are not at all similar to those of men, which means that the kind of educational and vocational planning which suffices for men is of little value for women; and (c) girls are given little realistic help by parents, teachers, or counselors in planning their future. Women are working because they have seized upon a job as a way of satisfying needs which are not being met within the family. There is a crying need for better data, both as to why women work and to what extent their jobs actually meet their needs.

More than 64 studies have been concerned with assessing women's interests by means of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank. Many of these studies have been inconclusive and unrewarding, since the investigators have found that it is difficult to effectively differentiate women's interests based upon a structural design initially developed to assess men's vocational interests. Further research by Laine and

Zytowski (1963, 1964) suggests that the organization of women's vocational interests is different from that of men's and improvement in measurement is vital.

Kinnane and Bannon's study (1964) deals with perceived parental influence and work-value orientations of daughters. Their results indicate that parental influence is highly related to the family's socio-economic status. Girls whose fathers were engaged in professional work and who were better educated than their wives internalized the father's idealized goals. Their hypothesis that women workers of lower socio-economic status seek extrinsic or economic values in work while those of upper socioeconomic status seek intrinsic or psychological values was not supported.

Esther Mathews (1963) has noted in high school girls a pattern of sharply declining career interest on the part of many, corresponding with an increased interest in their sex role, as they adopt the normative feminine personality configuration.

"Characteristics of High School Girls Choosing Traditional or Pioneer Vocations" by Rezler (1967) yielded some findings which have implications for counselors. She found considerable goal changing between the freshman and senior high school years, and "girls who intended to be physicians or nurses are more likely to stay with their early choices than are girls drawn to mathematics, the sciences, or teaching." Neither elementary school subjects nor avocational pursuits had any real significance for vocational goals. The girls who expressed a desire to enter the the field of medicine were found to have higher social service and scientific interests. Rezler contends that the Kuder and Holland instruments will help in the prediction of occupational choice through the use of interest and

personality scores. The investigator concludes that:

> it seems clear prospective pioneers can be separated from traditionals by the time of the junior year in high school. Pioneers have significantly higher academic aptitudes and achievements accompanied by more pronounced intellectual and masculine personalities and higher scientific and computational interests.

Women and Work

The United States Department of Labor has predicted that 8 out of 10 women eventually will enter the labor market. About 50 percent of today's young women are married by age 20 and have their last child at age 30. By the time that the youngest child is in school, these mothers still have many productive years before them and can anticipate larger economic roles in our society. At present, 46 percent of the women aged 35-44 are working and 51 percent of those aged 45-54 are currently in the labor force. The direct relationship between the educational attainment of women and their labor force participation has been authenticated. "The more education a woman has received, the greater the likelihood that she will be engaged in paid employment." (Trends in the Educational Attainment of Women, 1965)

Although it is estimated that by 1970, 30 million out of 86 million workers will be women, it is true also that these women will tend to be concentrated in low-paying and low-status occupations. It has been reported that women's portion of professional and technical jobs has been declining. What is more, men are entering and dominating the high status positions in fields traditionally staffed by women, e.g., positions in teaching, library science, and social welfare. Women have been conditioned to think that work implies a job as opposed to a career. Riesman says

"Our society remains inflexible when it comes to employing women in superior positions on a part-time basis, with allowances made for their dual roles as housewives and career women." (Women in America, 1964).

The following statistics aptly illustrate this trend:

> Women now account for less than 1 percent of all the engineers, 3 percent of the nation's lawyers, and 6 percent of its physicians. Women make up 90 percent of all nurses, stenographers, typists and librarians. They account for 80 percent of workers in apparel factories, nearly 45 percent in textile mills, almost 40 percent in factories. (Background Facts on Women Workers in the U.S., 1965)

To illustrate the fact that women are losing ground in some of their former strongholds, this publication cites the fact that,

> In public schools, where women carry about two-thirds of the teaching load, the proportion of women serving as school superintendents and assistant superintendents has been cut by more than half in the past twenty-five years. In higher education, women today account for a lower proportion of college and university teachers than they did in 1910.

An attempt by Lorraine D. Eyde (1962) to predict the work motivation of college women yielded a Work Values Scale which had a wider application than originally anticipated. Eyde's scale has a hierarchy of six work values, which are identifiable psychological needs: (1) dominance-recognition, (2) economic, (3) independence, (4) interesting activity, (5) mastery-achievement, and (6) social. She was able to demonstrate that the overall work motivation of college seniors was not significantly different from that of alumnae of 5 years. However, the responses of the college seniors did show that their highest work motivation was related to the dominance-recognition values, whereas the alumnae's responses stressed the values of mastery-achievement and interesting activity. Alumnae who were found to possess low work motivation ranked the values of independence and

social relations as being most important. Eyde's work was a significant attempt to provide basic research on the relationship between women's work motivation and certain work values.

Wagman's study (1965) on sex and age differences in occupational values utilized Center's instrument, i.e., Job Values and Desires Questionnaire. Wagman found that,

> to take a job where one can be of help to others is indeed in keeping with what we know of feminine strivings, even if the competitive occupational role of women in our culture is undergoing rapid acceleration and even if we take into account the large number of men entering social service fields and the number of husbands who share nurturative responsibility for housekeeping and child care. Most of the high school girls and the university women are no doubt planning secretarial, teaching, and other social service activities.

A study which attempted to examine factors which influence women to work outside the home was reported by Rossman and Campbell (1965). Their findings showed,

> that as compared to nonemployed mothers, full-time employed mothers: (a) had a higher mean score on the Minnesota Scholastic Aptitude Tests; (b) were less satisfied with their marriage and with life in general; (c) were likely to have more education than their husbands; (d) were more likely to have sought vocational counseling while in college; (e) had a lower median family income.

Estimates reveal that by 1975 there will be one-half million more women in the labor force than at present. One hundred thousand of these women will be entering the labor force for the first time, whereas 400,000 will be returning to the labor force after an absence to raise their families. The increased participation of women in the labor market places a multiplicity of concerns in the foreground for both employers and educators.

## Purpose of the Study

Documentation of the fact that previous research studies in the area of guidance and counseling for women have been both meager and inadequate in providing counselors with an empirical basis of why women work has been provided in the foregoing. The major aim of this study was to provide germane research about women's work values and how these values may be related to specific demographic variables. An understanding of the interrelationships of expressed work values and demographic variables can provide educators and counselors with an expanded perception of the meaning of work for women.

A number of variables interact in the formation of an individual's hierarchy of work values. Neither the values nor demographic variables investigated exhaust either category. This fact has placed certain limitations on the study and upon application of its findings. However, six values and seven variables were chosen for investigation and an attempt was made to demonstrate the interrelationship of these factors.

The six work values under investigation were identifiable psychological needs. These values have been defined by Eyde (1962) as the expressed need for: "dominance-recognition value, economic value, independence value, interesting activity value, mastery-achievement value, and social value." The seven demographic variables chosen to be linked with the work values were: marital status, age, educational attainment, current employment status, career pattern, socioeconomic class, and field of work.

## II. PROCEDURES

### Population Studied

Explanatory letters outlining the purpose and design of the study were sent to a variety of businesses and organizations seeking to enlist their cooperation. Respondents' names were selected at random from mailing lists provided by the cooperating groups. A complete listing of the cooperating institutions can be found in Appendix A.

An attempt was made to sample a diverse population which would offer a variety of categories for the demographic variables under investigation. A total of 4,003 questionnaires was mailed to women in New York State. Of this number 2,146 questionnaires were returned which represents a 54 percent response. The number of invalid questionnaires was 275, reducing the total population studied to 1,871 women. The respondents tended to be better educated than the average woman, according to the 1960 census figures in New York State.

### Data Collection

One instrument was used to collect the data for the study. The Work Values Questionnaire (see Appendix B) was mailed to the 4,003 women during June and July 1967.

### The Questionnaire

Since the current study represented an attempt to expand upon some earlier research reported by Lorraine D. Eyde (1962), Part II, which represents the original Work Values Scale, was not modified in content. It was necessary to simplify some of the language in several responses in order to make the terminology more understandable to the current respondents since the original scale was developed for use by college graduates.

Those items, which appear on Part II of the questionnaire, represent the six work values: dominance-recognition, economic, independence, interesting activity, mastery-achievement, and social. The scale used was a forced choice ipsative scale, in which each one of the six values appeared once in each of 14 sets. The respondents rank-ordered their responses in each set.

In order to ascertain the current reliability of the scale, the test-retest technique was used. Fifty women were selected at random for retesting. Forty-eight of this group returned their questionnaires. The reliability coefficients obtained for the Work Values Scale are reported in Table 1. The reliability coefficients obtained range from moderate to high reliability when comparisons are made with reliability coefficients for other attitudinal questionnaires.

Table 1

Reliability Coefficients:
Work Values Scale June-August 1967

| Work Value | Reliability Coefficient |
|---|---|
| Dominance-Recognition | .76 |
| Mastery-Achievement | .75 |
| Economic | .81 |
| Social | .52 |
| Independence | .69 |
| Interesting Activity | .77 |

Analysis of the Data

The rankings made by all the respondents were normalized since the ranking procedure produced a uniform distribution rather than a normal distribution. The scores were then combined to calculate total scores for the six factors. Thus, the score on each value had a possible range from 0 to 392 or a total of 1,176 distributed over six variables. Mean scores and standard deviations for the values were computed for each variable. The t-test was used to compare the score differences for each set of variables in order to test the null hypotheses. The statistical technique used to determine the relative importance of several factors in predicting another factor was stepwise multiple regression. The six values were used as dependent variables and the demographic variables were used as the independent variables. Chi-square values were computed for the women's responses to attitudinal questions relating to their desire to work.

## III. RESULTS

Questionnaire Results and the Variable of Marital Status

The marital status of the 1,871 women in the study as compared with the 1960 New York State Census Report is shown in Table 2.

An examination of Table 2 reveals that the sample studied was dissimilar to that for this same variable for New York State women. Of the respondents, 7 percent were single as compared with 17 percent of the New York State women in 1960. Married women living with their husbands comprised 83 percent of the total respondents as compared with 62 percent for the State. The category which included divorced, separated, and widowed women accounted for 10 percent of the respondents, while the comparable figure for the New York State women in 1960 was 21 percent. The over-

representation of married women (83 percent) may be due to the nature of the cooperating organizations, which have a tendency to attract married women rather than women in the other two categories.

Table 2

Marital Status of Respondents Compared With the Marital Status of New York State Women Aged 17-65+ Years

| | Present Respondents | New York State Women in 1960 |
|---|---|---|
| Single | 127<br>7% | 1,069,090<br>17% |
| Married | 1,569<br>83% | 3,799,201<br>62% |
| Divorced, Separated, Widowed | 175<br>10% | 1,291,495<br>21% |
| Total | 1,871<br>100% | 6,159,786<br>100% |

A number of attitudinal questions were posed and correlated with a woman's marital status. It was evident that women who differed in their marital status also differed in the degree of importance which they attached to the role of full-time homemaker. Married women assigned greater importance to the role than any of the other groups. The same was true when they responded to the significance of the role of the mother. Generally the married women viewed a job or career as relatively unimportant, while the other categories attached considerable significance to earning a living. Single, divorced, widowed, and separated women placed

the least amount of importance upon the worth of volunteer work. The married women seemed to seek volunteer work to satisfy some of the desires which the other two groups of women seek in paid employment. Eighty-three percent of the single and 84 percent of the married women felt that it was not desirable to work if one has preschool children. The group of divorced, widowed, and separated women were more liberal in their attitudes regarding a mother with preschool children working. Apparently, the age of the child was an important consideration for the single and married women because they became more tolerant of a mother's working when her children were school age than they had been when the children were preschoolers.

In order to determine whether a woman's marital status will affect the values which she seeks from work, mean scores and standard deviations were computed on the six values for the three marital groups. The modal rankings are presented in Table 3.

Table 3*

Ranking of Values According to Marital Status

| Work Value | Single | Married | Divorced |
|---|---|---|---|
| Mastery Achievement | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Independence | 2 | 5 | 2 |
| Dominance Recognition | 6 | 4 | 6 |
| Interesting Activity | 5 | 3 | 4 |
| Economic | 4 | 6 | 5 |
| Social | 3 | 2 | 3 |

*In all tables a rank of 1 is the highest rank and a rank of 6 is the lowest rank.

The mean scores obtained showed that there was a higher degree of similarity among the responses of the single, divorced, separated, and widowed women than the married women who formed a discrete category. All women placed great emphasis upon the mastery-achievement value, but married women's scores showed the most intensity. Single, divorced, widowed, and separated women showed a higher need for work to provide independence than did married women. Divorced, separated, and widowed women particularly exhibited an aversion to seeking dominance-recognition from their work. This particular value was not high for either the single or married women. The greatest spread among the groups was obtained for the value of work as providing interesting activity. Married women had higher expectations for work to be interesting, whereas single women either had lost this expectation through work experience or they never had it. The economic value of work was low for all women, especially married. Single and divorced women did not vary significantly in their responses regarding economic values. All women rated the social value of work highly, with married women displaying the greatest expectations of work providing social opportunity.

Questionnaire Results and the Variable of Age

Six age groupings were used to categorize the respondents in this study. A comparison is provided with the 1960 New York State Census Report in Table 4.

Table 4

Age Categories of Respondents Compared With the Age Categories of New York State Women

| Age | Present Respondents | New York Women in 1960 |
|---|---|---|
| 17-24 years | 58<br>3% | 830,802<br>14% |
| 25-34 years | 411<br>22% | 1,132,332<br>18% |
| 35-44 years | 793<br>42% | 1,234,309<br>20% |
| 45-54 years | 454<br>24% | 1,124,330<br>18% |
| 55-64 years | 122<br>7% | 913,307<br>15% |
| 65+ years | 31<br>2% | 924,706<br>15% |
| No response | 2<br>Less than<br>.05% | 0<br>0% |
| Total | 1,871<br>100% | 6,159,786<br>100% |

An examination of Table 4 reveals that the distribution of respondents within the age categories is dissimilar to that for this same variable for New York State women. Of the respondents in the present study, 3 percent were between the ages of 17-24 years as compared with 14 percent of the New York State women in 1960. At the other end of the continuum, 2 percent of the respondents were 65+ years of age as compared with 15 percent of the New York State women. Except for the extreme ends of the age scale, there was a good distribution of cases in each of the six categories. Since United States Department of Labor studies reveal that the middle age groupings are contributing the greatest number of women to the current labor force, the categories of 35-44 years (42 percent of the sample) and 45-54 years (24 percent of the sample) have special relevance for individuals concerned with the work values of these women. The median age for the respondents in this study was in the 35-44 year age category.

When the attitudinal questions were correlated with a woman's age it was found that the younger and middle age women attached greater importance to the role of full-time homemaker than the older women. Fifty percent of the younger women, 46 percent of the middle aged women, and 37 percent of the older women said it was a very important role. Perhaps it is because the two former groups find themselves still engaged in the activities of a family while the older women currently do not have the same demands made upon their time. The responses of younger and middle aged women indicated that they attached a high degree of importance to the mother's role, whereas older women perceived the role as less important. Again the women responded according to the realities of their present situation. The younger and middle age women still are concerned with the child-rearing processes while the older women have already passed this stage.

The older women attached the highest degree of importance to a job or career while the middle aged women attached the least degree of importance to this role. The results of the older women's responses to this attitudinal question were similar to the responses which they made in the questions related to full-time homemaker and the role of mother. Since the older women responded less positively to the relative importance of these two roles, one might anticipate that a job or career would be more important to them. The converse was true for the middle aged women, while the younger women apparently hoped to pursue a dual role. The youngest women placed the least importance upon volunteer work, whereas middle aged and older women felt it was moderately important to participate in volunteer activities. It may be that time pressures often prevent younger women from pursuing volunteer work and that the other two age categories have more leisure time for these activities. Eighty-six percent of middle aged and older women agreed that a woman should not work if she has preschool children. Only 71 percent of the young women agreed with this statement. The older women tended to be less flexible than the younger women when questioned about the desirability of working under these conditions. Different mores and values of various age groups appeared on the question of the working mother with school age children. The younger women were the most supportive of the desirability of working under these conditions while the older women viewed it as generally undesirable.

In order to determine whether a woman's age will affect the values which she seeks from work, mean scores and standard deviations were computed on the six values for the six age groups. The modal rankings are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Ranking of Values According to Age

| Work Value | 17-24 Years | 25-34 Years | 35-44 Years | 45-54 Years | 55-64 Years | 65+ Years |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mastery Achievement | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Independence | 3 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 3 |
| Dominance Recognition | 6 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 6 |
| Interesting Activity | 5 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 4 |
| Economic | 4 | 4 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 5 |
| Social | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |

Examining the mean scores revealed the following results. All women, regardless of their age, placed the greatest emphasis upon the mastery-achievement value. The importance of work providing independence was less for women in the 25-44 age brackets and tended to be greater for women at the opposite ends of the age scale. The oldest women in the study displayed the greatest need for independence. Most of the women, regardless of their age, tended to rate the dominance-recognition value rather low. The youngest women had the lowest expectation for work to be interesting, whereas women in the 35-44 age group had the highest expectations. The economic value of work was not a foremost value for any age group. However, younger women tended to attach a higher priority to the economic rewards of work. The oldest age group placed the least priority on this value, and the results seemed to say that the

economic value of work tends to decrease as a woman's maturity increases. The expectation that work would yield social rewards was highest for women in the oldest age group while the younger women showed less intensity in their scores. It may be that the desirability of work increases as a woman becomes further removed from the labor market.

Questionnaire Results and the Variable of Educational Attainment

Seven categories were used to stratify the educational attainment of the women in this study. A comparison with the 1960 New York State Census Report is provided in Table 6.

Table 6

Educational Attainment of Respondents Compared With the Educational Attainment of New York State Women Aged 14-65+ Years

| Years of Education Completed | Present Respondents | New York State Women in 1960 |
|---|---|---|
| 6 years or less | 6<br>1% | 775,540<br>11% |
| 7-9 years | 41<br>2% | 1,959,546<br>30% |
| 10-11 years | 112<br>6% | 1,077,374<br>17% |
| High school graduation | 621<br>33% | 1,799,569<br>28% |
| 13-15 years | 455<br>24% | 514,135<br>8% |
| Graduation from a 4-year college | 448<br>24% | 254,008<br>4% |
| Completion of an advanced degree | 188<br>10% | 126,317<br>2% |
| Total | 1,871<br>100% | 6,506,489<br>100% |

Table 6 reveals that the population studied was dissimiliar to that for this same variable for New York State women. The median educational attainment of the respondents was in the 13-15 years grouping. The women respondents had received more formal education than New York State women in 1960. The overrepresentation of better educated women may be due to the nature of both the cooperating organizations and the nature of the instrument which required some verbal aptitude.

A pooling of the educational attainment data with the variable of age produced a more comprehensive table (see Table 7). An examination of Table 7 shows that in all age categories the respondents were better educated than New York State women in general. Furthermore, this disparity increased with age.

In the youngest age category, 50 percent of the women in the study had 13 or more years of education, whereas only 12 percent of the women in New York State had attained the same level of education. In the 25-34 years of age group, 52 percent of the respondents had 13 or more years of education. The census data for the same age group of New York State women shows that only 20 percent of these women had completed over 13 years of education.

As one examines the education of the older age groups, the disparity increases between the respondents and the population as a whole. In the sample 35-44 age group, 60 percent had 13 or more years of education while only 15 percent of the New York State women had attained this level. In the 45-54 years bracket, the proportion was 62 percent to 15 percent. When the same comparison was made for the 55-64 years bracket, 61 percent of these women had 13 or more years of education as compared with 11 percent of all New York State women. In the oldest age group, 64

Table 7

Educational Attainment of Respondents and New York State Women in 1960

| Years of Education Completed | 14-24 Years of Age | | 25-34 Years of Age | | 35-44 Years of Age | | 45-54 Years of Age | | 55-64 Years of Age | | 65+ Years of Age | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Present Respondents | N.Y.S. Women in 1960 | Present Respondents | N.Y.S. Women in 1960 | Present Respondents | N.Y.S. Women in 1960 | Present Respondents | N.Y.S. Women in 1960 | Present Respondents | N.Y.S. Women in 1960 | Present Respondents | N.Y.S. Women in 1960 |
| 6 years or less | 1<br>2% | 46,673<br>4% | 1<br>Less than .05% | 59,355<br>5% | 2<br>Less than 1% | 76,652<br>6% | 2<br>Less than 1% | 115,822<br>10% | 0<br>0% | 183,838<br>20% | 0<br>0% | 293,200<br>32% |
| 7-9 years | 2<br>3% | 324,735<br>28% | 10<br>2% | 171,735<br>15% | 10<br>1% | 266,932<br>22% | 11<br>3% | 421,203<br>37% | 5<br>4% | 386,761<br>42% | 3<br>10% | 388,180<br>42% |
| 10-11 years | 9<br>16% | 315,722<br>27% | 27<br>7% | 195,546<br>18% | 41<br>5% | 219,092<br>18% | 23<br>5% | 171,459<br>15% | 9<br>7% | 105,306<br>11% | 3<br>10% | 70,249<br>8% |
| High School Graduation | 17<br>29% | 338,197<br>29% | 159<br>39% | 477,486<br>42% | 268<br>34% | 478,365<br>39% | 138<br>30% | 256,400<br>23% | 34<br>28% | 142,844<br>16% | 5<br>16% | 106,277<br>11% |
| 13-15 years | 12<br>21% | 116,110<br>10% | 92<br>22% | 118,388<br>10% | 206<br>26% | 102,655<br>8% | 115<br>25% | 84,654<br>8% | 23<br>19% | 53,342<br>6% | 7<br>22% | 38,986<br>4% |
| Graduation from a 4-year college | 15<br>26% | 30,142<br>2% | 91<br>22% | 76,377<br>7% | 196<br>25% | 57,554<br>5% | 108<br>24% | 44,863<br>4% | 28<br>23% | 25,623<br>3% | 10<br>32% | 19,449<br>2% |
| Completion of an Advanced Degree | 2<br>3% | 5,926<br>Less than 1% | 31<br>8% | 33,445<br>3% | 70<br>9% | 33,059<br>2% | 57<br>13% | 29,929<br>3% | 23<br>19% | 15,593<br>2% | 3<br>10% | 8,365<br>1% |
| Total | 58<br>100% | 1,177,505<br>100% | 411<br>100% | 1,132,332<br>100% | 793<br>100% | 1,234,309<br>100% | 454<br>100% | 1,124,330<br>100% | 122<br>100% | 913,307<br>100% | 31<br>100% | 924,706<br>100% |

percent of the women have completed 13 or more years of education as compared with 7 percent for the State as a whole.

When the attitudinal questions were correlated with a woman's education, it was found that the group of women who had completed the fewest years of education, and those who had completed the most years of education, placed the least importance upon the role of full-time homemaker. Women who had completed 10-12 years and 13-16 years of education tended to place the greatest importance upon the role of mother, whereas women with the fewest years of education attached the least amount of importance to a mother's role. It is interesting to note that women who had completed less than 9 years of education attached the greatest degree of importance to a job or career. Women who had completed 10-12 years and those who had completed 13-16 years attached the least importance to a job or career. Forty-eight percent of the women who had completed 17+ years of education saw a job or career as being very important. Women who differed in their educational backgrounds also varied in their responses as to whether a mother with pre-school children should work. Eighty-two percent of the women with 10-12 years of education and 86 percent of those with 13-16 years felt it was undesirable to work under these conditions. Seventy-seven percent of the women with 17+ years of education felt they would not want to work if there were pre-school children present. Only 50 percent of the women who had less than 9 years of education said they would want to work under these conditions.

In order to determine whether a woman's education will affect the values which she seeks from work, mean scores and standard deviations were computed on the six values for the seven educational levels. The modal rankings are presented in Table 8.

Table 8

Ranking of Values According to Educational Attainment

| Work Value | 6 Years or Less | 7-9 Years | 10-11 Years | 12 Years | 13-15 Years | 16 Years | 17+ Years |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mastery Achievement | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Independence | 3 | 2 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 4 |
| Dominance Recognition | 5 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 4 | 5 |
| Interesting Activity | 4 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 |
| Economic | 6 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 6 |
| Social | 2 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 2 |

When the t-test was applied to the mean scores obtained, the following conclusions were drawn. All women, regardless of their education, placed the greatest emphasis upon the mastery-achievement value. The importance of work providing independence was highest for the women who had less education. Most women, regardless of their education, tended to rate dominance-recognition value rather low. However, this value increased with education. Women with the least education had the lowest expectation for work to be interesting. Although the economic value of work was low for all women, the value generally tended to decrease in importance as a woman's education increased. All women rated the social value of work highly. Women with the most education anticipated that work would provide the greatest social value.

Questionnaire Results and the Variable of Current Employment Status

Another demographic variable considered in the present study was the current employment status of the women (see Table 9). It was not possible to compare these results with census data since the categories were not similar.

There was almost an equal distribution in the four employment categories. Twenty-four percent of the respondents were employed full-time, 22 percent were employed part-time, 28 percent were not employed and 25 percent were volunteer workers. Table 9 also shows the results obtained of pooling the data of current employment status with the variable of age.

An examination of Table 9 reveals that the largest percentage, 66 percent, of the youngest age group are employed full-time, whereas the percentage declines sharply to 20 percent for women 25-34 years of age, and decreases to 15 percent for women 35-44 years of age. After the child-bearing and child-rearing years are over, the percentage of working women increases to 35 percent for the 45-54 age group and to 43 percent for women in the 55-65 age group. As expected, fewer women in the oldest age group are employed full-time, the percentage dipping to 26 percent.

The highest percentage of women doing part-time work was in the 35-44 age group, viz., 27 percent. The age group which contributed the next greatest percentage of women to the part-time work category was the 25-34 age group.

The youngest age group had no women doing volunteer work. The largest percentage of volunteer work was done by the women in the 35-44 age group (29 percent) and the 45-54 age group (27 percent).

The smallest percentage of women not working was in the 45-54 age group and the highest percentage was in the oldest age category.

Table 9

Current Employment Status of Respondents

| Employment Status | Respondents 17-24 Years of Age | Respondents 25-34 Years of Age | Respondents 35-44 Years of Age | Respondents 45-54 Years of Age | Respondents 55-64 Years of Age | Respondents 65+ Years of Age | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Employed Full-Time | 38<br>66% | 81<br>20% | 120<br>15% | 159<br>35% | 52<br>43% | 8<br>26% | 458<br>24% |
| Employed Part-Time | 6<br>10% | 87<br>21% | 216<br>27% | 86<br>19% | 17<br>14% | 4<br>13% | 418<br>22% |
| Volunteer Work | 0<br>0% | 93<br>23% | 228<br>29% | 124<br>27% | 24<br>19% | 5<br>16% | 474<br>25% |
| Not Employed | 14<br>24% | 149<br>36% | 227<br>29% | 82<br>18% | 29<br>24% | 14<br>45% | 515<br>28% |
| No Response | 0<br>0% | 1<br>Less than 1% | 2<br>Less than 1% | 3<br>1% | 0<br>0% | 0<br>0% | 6<br>1% |
| Total | 58<br>100% | 411<br>100% | 793<br>100% | 454<br>100% | 122<br>100% | 31<br>100% | 1,871<br>100% |

Correlating the attitudinal questions with a woman's current employment status showed that the more a woman participated in work outside the home, the less vitality did she assign to the role of full-time homemaker. Women who were employed on a voluntary basis attached the greatest importance to the role of mother, 91 percent rating as very important while only 76 percent of the women employed full-time attached the same significance to a mother's role. As one might anticipate, women who were employed on a full-time basis attached the most significance to a job or a career, while women who did volunteer work viewed a job or career as being relatively unimportant. Women employed full-time placed the least emphasis on volunteer activities. Women who differed in their employment status also varied significantly in their responses as to whether a mother with preschool children should work. Although there was a fair degree of unanimity that working under these conditions was not desirable, those women who were not employed and those who were employed full-time were more moderate than volunteer workers, who expressed a strong aversion to working under these conditions. Women who did volunteer work were least supportive of women working with school age children (58 percent felt a mother should not work). The women who were employed on a part-time basis were most supportive of working with school age children in the home.

In order to determine whether a woman's current employment status will affect the values which she seeks from work, mean scores and standard deviations were computed on the six values for the four employment levels. The modal rankings are presented in Table 10.

Table 10

Ranking of Values According to Current Employment Status

| Work Value | Employed Full-Time | Employed Part-Time | Not Employed | Volunteer Work |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mastery Achievement | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Independence | 4 | 6 | 5 | 5 |
| Dominance-Recognition | 6 | 4 | 6 | 4 |
| Interesting Activity | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 |
| Economic | 5 | 5 | 4 | 6 |
| Social | 2 | 3 | 2 | 2 |

When the t-test was applied to the mean scores obtained, the following conclusions were drawn. All women placed great emphasis upon the mastery-achievement value. Women who were employed full-time showed the greatest need for work to provide independence, whereas those working part-time showed the least expectation. All groups rated the need for dominance-recognition low. The greatest spread was obtained for the value of work providing interesting activity. Women who were employed part-time had greater expectations for work to be interesting, whereas women who were employed full-time either had lost this expectation or never held this value. Generally, the economic value of work was low for all women. All four categories of women rated the social value of work highly, with volunteer workers being more concerned with social value than women employed part-time.

Questionnaire Results and the Variable of Career Pattern

The fifth variable which was considered in examining the work values of women was their career pattern. Five categories were used to differentiate among the career patterns of the women. The questionnaire utilized the five-fold classification created by Donald E. Super (1957). He has defined these groups as:

1. Stable homemaking - never worked
2. Conventional - work, married, homemaker
3. Stable working - always worked, never a full-time homemaker
4. Double Track - combined work and homemaking
5. Interrupted - work, married, homemaker, returned to work

Table 11 shows the career patterns of the respondents. It was not possible to compare the data obtained on this variable with census data since the latter yielded no such categories. Table 11 also shows the result of pooling the variable of career pattern with the variable of age.

Most of the women in the study pursued one of two types of career patterns, viz., the conventional or the interrupted. The largest percentage, 41 percent, followed the work, marriage, homemaker pattern, while 30 percent pursued the work, marriage, homemaker, and returned to work pattern. A small percentage, 3 percent, had never worked and 7 percent had always worked. Sixteen percent followed the double track pattern which combined work and homemaking.

An examination of Table 11 shows that the career pattern followed by most of the youngest respondents (40 percent) was the stable working pattern. Forty-three percent of the women in the 25-34 age group had followed the conventional career pattern, as did 47 percent of the women in the 35-44 age group. The largest percent of the respondents in both the 45-54 age group and the 55-64 age group followed the interrupted career pattern. Twenty-six percent of the oldest respondents reported that they had pursued a stable working pattern.

Table 11

Career Patterns of Respondents

| Career Pattern | Respondents 17-24 Years of Age | Respondents 25-34 Years of Age | Respondents 35-44 Years of Age | Respondents 45-54 Years of Age | Respondents 55-64 Years of Age | Respondents 65+ Years of Age | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Stable Homemaking | 4<br>7% | 16<br>4% | 20<br>3% | 14<br>3% | 6<br>5% | 4<br>13% | 64<br>3% |
| Conventional | 3<br>5% | 177<br>43% | 372<br>47% | 168<br>37% | 36<br>29% | 7<br>22% | 763<br>41% |
| Stable Working | 23<br>40% | 49<br>12% | 26<br>3% | 21<br>5% | 16<br>13% | 8<br>26% | 143<br>7% |
| Double Track | 17<br>29% | 78<br>19% | 122<br>15% | 53<br>12% | 19<br>16% | 2<br>6% | 291<br>16% |
| Interrupted | 3<br>5% | 83<br>20% | 237<br>30% | 182<br>40% | 41<br>34% | 7<br>23% | 555<br>50% |
| No Response | 8<br>14% | 8<br>2% | 16<br>2% | 16<br>3% | 4<br>3% | 3<br>10% | 54<br>3% |
| Total | 58<br>100% | 411<br>100% | 793<br>100% | 454<br>100% | 122<br>100% | 31<br>100% | 1,871<br>100% |

When the attitudinal questions were correlated with a woman's career pattern, it was found that women who differed in their career patterns also varied in the degree of importance which they attached to the homemaker role. Women who had stable working patterns attached the least importance, while women who never worked, and those with conventional career patterns attached the greatest importance to the role. The same finding was also true when the women were queried about the role of a mother. Women with conventional career patterns attached the least importance to a job or career, only 10 percent saying that a job or career was very important. Moderate responses were given by women who had double track career patterns and interrupted career patterns. Sixteen percent of the women with interrupted patterns and 20 percent of those with stable working patterns said this was very important to them. A moderate degree of importance was attached to volunteer work by respondents with conventional career patterns and double track career patterns. It may be that the time element had an impact upon the degree of importance attached to volunteer work by these groups of women. Women who never worked and those with conventional career patterns gave the most support for a mother with preschool children not working whereas the least support for this premise was offered by women with double track patterns and stable work patterns. The same pattern emerged when the responses to the question of working with school age children was asked.

In order to determine whether a woman's career pattern will affect the values which she seeks from work, mean scores and standard deviations were computed on the six values for the five career patterns. The modal rankings are presented in Table 12.

Table 12

Ranking of Values According to Career Pattern

| Work Value | Stable Homemaking | Conventional | Stable Working | Double Track | Interrupted |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mastery Achievement | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Independence | 4 | 5 | 2 | 4 | 4 |
| Dominance Recognition | 5 | 4 | 6 | 6 | 6 |
| Interesting Activity | 3 | 3 | 5 | 3 | 2 |
| Economic | 6 | 6 | 4 | 5 | 5 |
| Social | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 3 |

When the t-test was applied to the mean scores obtained, the following conclusions were drawn. Once again all women placed the greatest emphasis upon the mastery-achievement value. Women who followed a stable working pattern showed the highest need for work to provide independence while those who had a conventional career pattern showed the least need. The more a woman's career approached a stable working pattern, the more likely it was that she would exhibit the need for work to provide independence. The value of dominance-recognition generally was unimportant. Women with stable working patterns showed the least expectation for work to be interesting, in contrast to women who had an interrupted career pattern. The economic value of work was again low in the value hierarchies of all groups of women. The more a woman's career pattern approximated a stable working pattern, the less she anticipated that work would yield social values.

Questionnaire Results and the Variable of Socioeconomic Class

Five socioeconomic classes were used to categorize the respondents so that this variable could be investigated. In order to determine a woman's socioeconomic class, "The Two Factor Index of Social Position" developed by August B. Hollingshead (1966) was used. Hollingshead says this technique

> ...was developed to meet the need for an objective, easily applicable procedure to estimate the positions individuals occupy in the status structure of our society. Its development was dependent both upon detailed knowledge of the social structure and procedures social scientists have used to delineate class position.... Occupation and education are the factors utilized to determine social position. (1966)

Hollingshead provides an occupational scale which divides all occupations into seven categories. His rationale for doing this,

> ...is premised upon the assumption that occupations have different values attached to them by members of our society. The hierarchy ranges from the low evaluation of unskilled physical labor toward the more prestigeful use of skills through the creative talents of ideas and the manipulation of men. (1966)

To use the occupational scale, the following technique was employed:

1. Determine an individual's occupational level using Hollingshead's list and the individual's response to question #7.

2. Multiply the level by a factor weight of 7. The foregoing weight was determined by multiple correlation techniques.

3. For married women and girls still attending school, base their educational score upon the head of the household's educational level which appeared in question #5.

These two scores, the occupational score and the educational score, were then added to yield a composite score. The use of Hollingshead's

technique made it possible to categorize the respondents into five social classes. Socioeconomic Class I is the highest and Socioeconomic Class V is the lowest. The results are shown in Table 13. It was not possible to compare these results with the census data because census data on socioeconomic class did not exist.

It can be seen that there was a range of socioeconomic classes represented and that there was a underrepresentation in the fifth socioeconomic class. Nineteen percent of the respondents were in the first socioeconomic class, 25 percent in the second, 29 percent in the third, 19 percent in the fourth, and 7 percent in the fifth. Table 13 also shows the results obtained by pooling socioeconomic class data with the variable of age.

Correlating the attitudinal questions with a woman's socioeconomic class revealed that women in the first and fourth classes placed the greatest importance on the role of full-time homemaker whereas women in the second and fifth socioeconomic classes failed to attach as much significance to this role, and women in the third class were relatively indifferent. The women in the first and fourth socioeconomic classes attached the least importance to a job or career. Fourteen percent of the former group and 20 percent of the latter group said a job or career was very important. Women in the fifth socioeconomic class placed the most value on a job or career, since 58 percent reported they thought a job or career was very important. The higher a woman's socioeconomic class, the greater the importance she attached to volunteer work. The women who were the least supportive of working when there were preschool children in the home were the women in Socioeconomic Class I. The lowest socioeconomic class women were most supportive of working under these conditions. Women in the first and third socioeconomic classes were least supportive of women with school age children working, whereas the lowest socioeconomic class was the most supportive.

Table 13

Socioeconomic Class of Respondents

| Social Class | Respondents 17-24 Years of Age | Respondents 25-34 Years of Age | Respondents 35-44 Years of Age | Respondents 45-54 Years of Age | Respondents 55-64 Years of Age | Respondents 65+ Years of Age | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I | 3<br>6% | 65<br>16% | 168<br>22% | 95<br>21% | 19<br>16% | 2<br>6% | 352<br>19% |
| II | 13<br>22% | 94<br>23% | 191<br>24% | 114<br>25% | 46<br>38% | 16<br>52% | 476<br>25% |
| III | 22<br>38% | 118<br>29% | 237<br>20% | 132<br>29% | 25<br>20% | 3<br>10% | 537<br>29% |
| IV | 10<br>17% | 84<br>20% | 150<br>19% | 85<br>19% | 23<br>19% | 8<br>26% | 360<br>19% |
| V | 10<br>17% | 49<br>12% | 43<br>5% | 25<br>6% | 9<br>7% | 1<br>3% | 137<br>7% |
| No Response | 0<br>0% | 1<br>Less than 1% | 4<br>Less than 1% | 3<br>Less than 1% | 0<br>0% | 1<br>3% | 9<br>1% |
| Total | 58 | 411 | 793<br>100% | 454<br>100% | 122<br>100% | 31<br>100% | 1,871<br>100% |

In order to determine whether a woman's socioeconomic class will affect the values which she seeks from work, mean scores and standard deviations were computed on the six values for the five socioeconomic classes. The modal rankings appear in Table 14.

Table 14

Ranking of Values According to Socioeconomic Class

| Work Value | S.C. I | S.C. II | S.C. III | S.C. IV | S.C. V |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mastery Achievement | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Independence | 5 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 3 |
| Dominance Recognition | 4 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 6 |
| Interesting Activity | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 5 |
| Economic | 6 | 6 | 6 | 4 | 4 |
| Social | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |

When the t-test was applied to the mean scores obtained, the following conclusions were drawn. All women continued to place the greatest emphasis upon the mastery-achievement value. The women in the highest socioeconomic class showed the most intensity of feeling that work should yield mastery-achievement. Women from the lowest class had the strongest need for work to provide independence. Although women from all socioeconomic classes rated dominance-recognition low, the highest class still showed the strongest need while the lowest class displayed the least need. The lowest expectation for work to be interesting was attributed to the lowest socioeconomic class. The higher a woman's socioeconomic class, the less importance she attached to the economic value of work and the higher was her expectation that work would yield social value.

Questionnaire Results and the Variable of Field of Work

The seventh variable which was examined in the study was field of work. Respondents indicated their current occupations and their responses were classified into ten groups. The ten groups used were:

1. Full-time homemaker
2. Counselor, therapist, social worker, Y.W.C.A. worker, teacher, religious worker
3. Cook, waitress, charwoman, private household worker, elevator operator
4. Saleswoman, public relations worker, real estate saleswoman, insurance saleswoman, broker, hostess
5. Manager, proprietor, executive, public official, administrator
6. Accountant, bank teller, cashier, bookkeeper
7. Typist, clerk, telephone operator, secretary, stenographer

8. Machine operator, assembly line worker

9. Nurse, physician, laboratory technician, X-ray technician, medical technician, dental technician

10. Other

The results obtained are shown in Table 15. It was not possible to compare these results with census data because no corresponding data exist.

It can be seen that 49 percent of the respondents were full-time homemakers, 14 percent were in the helping professions, 3 percent were in executive positions, 10 percent were in clerical occupations, 1 percent held factory jobs, 4 percent were employed in health-related occupations, and 9 percent were working in unclassified occupations. Table 15 also shows the results obtained by compiling the data on field of work with the variable of age.

When the relationship between a woman's attitude toward hypothetical work situations and her field of work was examined, women in administrative positions and in factory work attached the least importance to the role of full-time homemaker. The lowest ratings assigned to the importance of the role of a mother were again by women administrators and also women in the "helping professions." Women who were employed as factory workers assigned the highest rating to a job or career while full-time homemakers rated it as least important. Women who differed in their field of work also varied significantly in their responses as to whether or not a mother with preschool children should work. Ninety-two percent of women who were full-time homemakers agreed with the premise that women

Table 15

Field of Work of Respondents

| Field of Work | Respondents 17-24 Years of Age | Respondents 25-34 Years of Age | Respondents 35-44 Years of Age | Respondents 45-54 Years of Age | Respondents 55-64 Years of Age | Respondents 65+ Years of Age | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| F. W. 1 | 4<br>7% | 204<br>50% | 428<br>54% | 205<br>45% | 48<br>39% | 20<br>65% | 909<br>49% |
| F. W. 2 | 7<br>12% | 56<br>14% | 88<br>11% | 80<br>18% | 26<br>21% | 3<br>10% | 261<br>14% |
| F. W. 3 | 3<br>5% | 10<br>2% | 20<br>3% | 12<br>3% | 2<br>2% | 1<br>3% | 48<br>3% |
| F. W. 4 | 0<br>0% | 15<br>4% | 29<br>4% | 13<br>3% | 3<br>2% | 0<br>0% | 60<br>3% |
| F. W. 5 | 1<br>2% | 9<br>2% | 18<br>2% | 18<br>4% | 13<br>11% | 1<br>3% | 61<br>3% |
| F. W. 6 | 2<br>3% | 10<br>2% | 32<br>4% | 15<br>3% | 2<br>2% | 1<br>3% | 62<br>3% |
| F. W. 7 | 21<br>36% | 30<br>7% | 71<br>9% | 53<br>12% | 13<br>11% | 0<br>0% | 188<br>10% |
| F. W. 8 | 0<br>0% | 5<br>1% | 7<br>1% | 7<br>1% | 1<br>1% | 0<br>0% | 20<br>1% |
| F. W. 9 | 4<br>7% | 24<br>6% | 31<br>4% | 20<br>4% | 3<br>2% | 1<br>3% | 83<br>4% |
| F. W. 10 | 15<br>26% | 44<br>11% | 64<br>8% | 26<br>6% | 10<br>8% | 3<br>10% | 162<br>9% |
| No Response | 1<br>2% | 4<br>1% | 5<br>Less than 1% | 5<br>1% | 1<br>1% | 1<br>3% | 17<br>1% |
| Total | 58<br>100% | 411<br>100% | 793<br>100% | 454<br>100% | 122<br>100% | 31<br>100% | 1,871<br>100% |

Key:
- F. W. 1 -- Full-time homemaker
- F. W. 2 -- Counselor, therapist, social worker
- F. W. 3 -- Cook, waitress, charwoman, private household worker, elevator operator
- F. W. 4 -- Saleswoman, public relations worker, real estate saleswoman, insurance saleswoman, broker, hostess
- F. W. 5 -- Manager, proprietor, executive, public official, administrator
- F. W. 6 -- Accountant, bank teller, cashier, bookkeeper
- F. W. 7 -- Typist, clerk, telephone operator, secretary, stenographer
- F. W. 8 -- Machine operator, assembly line worker
- F. W. 9 -- Nurse, physician, lab technichian, X-ray technician, medical technician, dental technician
- F. W. 10 -- Other

should not work under these conditions. Only 58 percent of those women engaged in factory work agreed with this statement. The most support for women with school aged children working was given by women engaged in "service" occupations.

In order to decide whether a woman's field of work will affect the values which she seeks from work, mean scores and standard deviations were computed on the six values for the 10 fields of work. The modal rankings are presented in Table 16.

When the t-test was applied to the mean scores obtained, the following conclusions were drawn. Mastery-achievement was once again of primary importance to all women. Women in administrative positions showed the greatest need for work to yield this value, whereas the women in service occupations showed the least expectation. The need for work to provide independence was greatest for women in administrative positions, in clerical jobs, and factory work. Dominance-recognition appeared to be a relatively unimportant value for most women, although it was higher for women in executive jobs and lower for women engaged in factory work. The groups of women who were most concerned about the work value of interesting activity were full-time homemakers and bookkeepers, while factory workers expressed the least expectation for work to be interesting. The greater one's salary the less important was the economic value of work. Those women who were full-time homemakers showed the greatest hope that work would yield social rewards and women administrators sought this value the least.

Table 16

Ranking of Values According to Field of Work

| | F. W. 1 | F. W. 2 | F. W. 3 | F. W. 4 | F. W. 5 | F. W. 6 | F. W. 7 | F. W. 8 | F. W. 9 | F. W. 10 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mastery Achievement | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Independence | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 5 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 4 |
| Dominance Recognition | 4 | 4 | 6 | 6 | 4 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 |
| Interesting Activity | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 3 |
| Economic | 6 | 6 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 2 | 5 | 5 |
| Social | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 6 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 2 | 2 |

Key: F. W. 1 -- Full-time homemaker
F. W. 2 -- Counselor, therapist, social worker, Y.W.C.A. worker
F. W. 3 -- Cook, waitress, charwoman, private household worker, elevator operator
F. W. 4 -- Saleswoman, public relations worker, real estate saleswoman, insurance
F. W. 5 -- Manager, proprietor, executive, public official, administrator
F. W. 6 -- Accountant, bank teller, cashier, bookkeeper
F. W. 7 -- Typist, clerk, telephone operator, secretary, stenographer
F. W. 8 -- Machine operator, assembly line worker
F. W. 9 -- Nurse, physician, lab technician, X-ray technician, medical technician, dental technician
F. W. 10 -- Other

Prediction of Women's Work Values

Each of the six work values was treated as a dependent variable and submitted to a step-wise regression analysis using the General Electric program G.E. 3.001, Multiple Linear Regression Analysis. The independent variables in this analysis were the seven demographic variables: marital status, age, educational attainment, current employment status, career pattern, socioeconomic class, and field of work. This program tested the significance and predictive power of each of the independent variables. The results appear in Table 17.

The work values of mastery-achievement, dominance-recognition, and economic can be predicted through knowledge of a woman's field of work. The value of interesting activity can be predicted through the use of two demographic variables; educational attainment and work pattern.

Table 17

Results of the Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

| Work Value | Optional Demographic Predictor(s) | Regression Coefficient | Constant | Standard Error of Regression Coefficient | Standard Error of Regression Estimate | Coefficient of Determination | F-Statistic | Confidence Level |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mastery Achievement | Field of Work | -7.381 | 271.50 | 2.485 | 47.075 | .155 | 7.436 | 99% |
| Independence | | | no valid predictor | | | | | |
| Dominance Recognition | Field of Work | -6.191 | 164.02 | 2.964 | 56.146 | .083 | 4.363 | 95% |
| Interesting Activity | 1. Educational Attainment | -17.813 | 267 | 8.761 | 65.377 | .126 | 2.861 | 99% |
| | 2. Work Pattern | 13.102 | | 6.467 | 65.377 | .126 | 2.861 | |
| Economic | Field of Work | 14.972 | 110.42 | 5.049 | 95.659 | .155 | 7.436 | 90% |
| Social | | | no valid predictor | | | | | |

## IV. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this study indicate that the values which women seek from work are linked to specific demographic variables. Women vary in their work values according to age, marital status, socioeconomic class, career pattern, employment status, field of work, and education. This in itself is not surprising, however, but it is a major contention of this study that the work values of women differ significantly from the work values of men. Yet in counseling, this difference is not normally recognized and taken into account.

Although the Work Values Scale used in this study has not been used with men, a number of other studies substantiate the foregoing contention. Super and Kaplan (1967) reported that men emphasized the economic rewards of work and management of others. Another study done by Champagne and King (1967) found that men sought recognition from their work and they stressed the importance of a steady job. Another study (Masih, 1967) also showed the males' concern with steady work and with independence and prestige on the job. It is important for the counselor to contrast these work values of men with the following work values of women.

All women in this study, demonstrated a high need for their work to yield the mastery-achievement value. It must be stressed that this is the only work value which consistently crossed all demographic variables. Therefore, this must be considered as the central work value for women. This means that the counselor must always keep in mind that women need to derive a sense of accomplishment and satisfaction from their work. Counselors will miss the true needs of girls and women if their educational and vocational counseling should stress some other value as primary.

Women consistently selected items which reflected a desire to use their training and education, to stay abreast with changes in their occupation, and to use their time fruitfully.

The second most significant value that women seek from their work is fulfillment of their social needs. Counselors should note well that salary has not been able to rank with these values in importance to women in any demographic category. This is a bit surprising and is a significant difference from men's work values. The counselor should realize that women work because of loneliness, boredom, lack of stimulation, or to escape the ineluctable monotony of childish prattle. Therefore, women expressed their desires to make new friends, to be around others, and to seek social outlets.

The next two work values in the order of importance after mastery-achievement and social, are: interesting-activity and independence. The interesting-activity value is closely tied into their expressed desire to find social outlets. The woman who is tired of a stack of dirty dishes to wash after every meal is looking for a job that is more interesting in its activities than rewashing the same plate 21 times a week. She seeks an opportunity to vary her experience, to avoid boredom and to experience different events. Independence was only a moderate need. Women are not basically going to work to free themselves from felt restraints, but there is some need for women to demonstrate that they could be independent if circumstances should require. The women did not stress items related to avoiding depending on others or being controlled by others.

The two least important work values of women are dominance-recognition and economic. Women are not seeking control or supervision

over other workers, whether male or female, and frequently seek to avoid this responsibility. The counselor should be aware of the fact that it will be an unusual woman who feels the need to dominate others on the job, and therefore the girl displaying this need should be counseled accordingly. Even women in executive positions rated this value only fourth out of the six. The women shied away from items related to being leaders, organizing activities, and feeling important. Contrary to popular belief, this study showed the economic rewards of work rated very low in the eyes of most women. It is, of course, possible that this value really is higher than indicated and that women prefer to conceal this fact lest it appear to reflect upon their husbands' earning capacity. However, while we may retain this suspicion, we are still left with the actual replies. Even the single women rated this value fourth. It would seem, therefore, that counselors would do well to stress the other values rather than this one in their work with the girls, even though, of course, this one should not be omitted.

This study stresses the need for the guidance and counseling profession to accept and meet the challenges which confront them in preparing girls and women for the world of work. In some instances, the study showed that women who never worked had little conception of the world of work. Women who had active roles in the labor market held lower expectations about the intrinsic rewards of work. The extrinsic rewards seemed to become more dominant if a woman had less education or held a job requiring less skill. Since many of the women entering the labor market will be concentrated in low-paying and low-status occupations, it behooves educators to examine the realities of the preparation which is given to these women and the vocational and educational guidance which they receive.

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# APPENDICES

## APPENDIX A

THE COOPERATING INSTITUTIONS WERE:

The New York State Congress of Parents and Teachers

General Electric Company

Nassau County Extension Service

Buffalo Savings Bank

Niagara Machine and Tool Works

Manpower Development and Training Centers

Youth Opportunity Centers

Cornell University

Bonwit Teller Incorporated

Federation of Protestant Welfare Agencies

Rockland Community College

New York State Personnel and Guidance Association

Women's Talent Corps

Tobin Packing Company

Hudson Valley Community College

Hofstra University

Young Women's Christian Association

State University of New York Agricultural and Technical College at Farmingdale

New School for Social Research

Volunteer Opportunities Incorporated

Division of Buildings for the City of Buffalo

Mechanics and Farmers Bank of Albany

Appendix B

To: Women of New York State

The attached questionnaire is part of a research study sponsored by the New York State Education Department to provide a better understanding of the values which women seek from work. The results of the study will be used to provide guidance counselors with helpful data about women's attitudes towards work and to assist educators in program planning and curriculum revision.

The work attitudes of a variety of women in New York State will provide valuable information. Junior and senior high school girls need expert assistance in planning their careers because most of them will probably work during their lifetime. The multiple roles which girls will assume and the choices that confront them have made counseling more difficult. We hope that this study will assist counselors in providing realistic educational and vocational counseling.

We would greatly appreciate it if you would help us by completing the questionnaire as soon as possible and returning it in the enclosed envelope. Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Helen E. Bickel

Helen E. Bickel
Associate in Education Research

HEB:tp
Attachments

THE UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK
The State Education Department
Bureau of Occupational Education Research
Albany, New York 12224

# WORK VALUES QUESTIONNAIRE

## PART I

INSTRUCTIONS

We are studying the reasons why women work and would like you to assist us by completing the attached questionnaire. Please place an X in the blank next to the most appropriate answer. Thank you for your cooperation.

1. My marital status is:

_____ 1. Never married
_____ 2. Married
_____ 3. Divorced, separated, or widowed

2. My age is:

_____ 1. 17-24 years
_____ 2. 25-34 years
_____ 3. 35-44 years
_____ 4. 45-54 years
_____ 5. 55-64 years
_____ 6. 65+ years

3. The total number of years of formal education I received is:

_____ 1. 6 years or less
_____ 2. 7-9 years
_____ 3. 10-11 years
_____ 4. Graduation from high school
_____ 5. 13-15 years
_____ 6. Graduation from a four-year college or university
_____ 7. Completion of an advanced degree

4. My current employment status is:

_____ 1. full-time paid employment
_____ 2. part-time paid employment
_____ 3. not employed
_____ 4. do volunteer work

_____ (a) weekly
_____ (b) occasionally

5. Answer the following questions only if you are married and/or attending school full-time.

The total number of years of formal education the head of your household (your husband or father) received is:

_____ 1. 6 years or less
_____ 2. 7-9 years
_____ 3. 10-11 years
_____ 4. Graduation from high school
_____ 5. 13-15 years
_____ 6. Graduation from a four-year college or university
_____ 7. Completion of an advanced degree

6. My work pattern up to the present time can best be described as:

_____ 1. Never worked
_____ 2. Work, marriage, homemaker
_____ 3. Always have worked, never a full-time homemaker
_____ 4. Combined work and homemaking
_____ 5. Work, marriage, homemaker, return to work

7. My present occupation is _____.
(please be specific)

8. Answer the following question only if you are married and/or attending school full-time.

My husband's or father's occupation is _____.
(please be specific)

In questions 9-15, check the response which most closely describes your feelings.

9. I feel that the job of full-time homemaker for me is:

_____ 1. Not important
_____ 2. Slightly important
_____ 3. Important
_____ 4. Very important
_____ 5. Extremely important

10. I feel that the job of a mother for me is:

_____ 1. Not important
_____ 2. Slightly important
_____ 3. Important
_____ 4. Very important
_____ 5. Extremely important

11. I feel that a job or career for me is:

_____ 1. Not important
_____ 2. Slightly important
_____ 3. Important
_____ 4. Very important
_____ 5. Extremely important

12. I feel that belonging to clubs or groups for me is:

_____ 1. Not important
_____ 2. Slightly important
_____ 3. Important
_____ 4. Very important
_____ 5. Extremely important

13. I feel that working without pay for certain organizations for me is:

_____ 1. Not important
_____ 2. Slightly important
_____ 3. Important
_____ 4. Very important
_____ 5. Extremely important

14. I feel that if I had pre-school children that I should not work:

_____ 1. Strongly disagree
_____ 2. Disagree
_____ 3. Undecided
_____ 4. Agree
_____ 5. Strongly agree

15. I feel that if I had school-age children that I should not work:

_____ 1. Strongly disagree
_____ 2. Disagree
_____ 3. Undecided
_____ 4. Agree
_____ 5. Strongly agree

PART II

REASONS FOR WORKING (NOTE: DIRECTIONS FOR THIS PART ARE DIFFERENT.)

Following are 14 sets of statements each giving six reasons why some women work for pay. Please rank each set as to how you feel about working whether you work or not. In each set, mark 1 for the reason which best fits you. Then place 2 next to the reason which second best fits you. Do not repeat any numbers in each set, but rank each one using the numbers 1 through 6. Please answer all sets.

For example, if in the following set of reasons for working, the first reason applies to you least of all, and the second reason applies to you most of all, your rating might look like this.

6 Be around people
1 Be a supervisor over others
3 Do interesting things
4 Get something done
2 Avoid being a burden to others
5 Make money for the "extras" in life

Set A

_____ Use my education
_____ Avoid depending upon others
_____ Help people make choices
_____ Be able to talk about something besides housework and children
_____ Make money to buy basic things
_____ Be helpful to others

Set B

_____ Be on my own
_____ Make money for trips
_____ Meet people
_____ Experience different events
_____ Use my training and education
_____ Be noticed for the work I do

Set C

_____ Be with people
_____ Feel that life is not dull
_____ Improve all the time
_____ Make money to spend on myself
_____ Influence groups of people
_____ Be independent

Set D

_____ Make money for extra things
_____ Supervise activities
_____ Avoid being told what to do
_____ Want to advance
_____ Avoid boredom
_____ Be around people

Set E

_____ Be recognized
_____ Get somewhere
_____ Be introduced to different people
_____ Have nice things
_____ Avoid sitting around the house
_____ Depend upon myself

Set F

_____ Work because it keeps me young
_____ Not be bossed by others
_____ Work because I enjoy getting out
_____ Tell others what to do
_____ Make money for "shopping sprees"
_____ Avoid being lonely

Set G

_____ Contribute to the community
_____ Get outside the house
_____ Keep up with changes in my occupation
_____ Make money
_____ Guide others
_____ Determine what I do

Set H

_____ Make money for attractive clothes
_____ Have my efforts be seen
_____ Avoid being controlled by others
_____ Know people to do things with
_____ Be good at something
_____ Listen to more adult conversation

Set I

_____ Have contacts in the outside world
_____ Use my abilities
_____ Make money to buy the things I need
_____ Make friends
_____ Have people like me
_____ Make my own decisions

Set J

_____ Stand on my own two feet
_____ Make money for daily expenses
_____ Keep busy
_____ Feel needed
_____ Use my time well
_____ Have a chance to help people

Set K

_____ Organize activities
_____ Get ahead
_____ Assist my neighbors
_____ Save for a "rainy day"
_____ Keep myself as attractive as I should
_____ Run my own life

Set L

_____ Create something new
_____ Avoid loneliness
_____ Be a leader
_____ Do more than housework
_____ Make my own life
_____ Make money so I can live in a better neighborhood

Set M

_____ Feel free
_____ Make money to buy a home
_____ Be with people in my occupation
_____ Avoid dull housework
_____ Develop my skills
_____ Feel important

Set N

_____ Make money for independent income
_____ Run my own life
_____ Make decisions
_____ Keep mentally alert
_____ Have the opportunity to work with people
_____ Vary my experience